

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 358 641

EC 302 204

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TITLE The Principal as the Special Education Instructional Leader. Revised.
INSTITUTION Indiana Univ., Bloomington. Dept. of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Mar 92
CONTRACT G008730038-88
NOTE 62p.; In: Burrello, Leonard C., And Others. Principal's Training Simulator in Special Education. Instructor's Packet; see EC 302 203.
AVAILABLE FROM CASE Research Committee, Indiana University, School of Education, Smith Research Center-100A, 2805 East 10th St., Bloomington, IN 47405 (Order No. PRL-4, \$15).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Role; Case Studies; *Disabilities; Educational Environment; Elementary Secondary Education; *Instructional Leadership; Leadership; Mainstreaming; *Principals; Program Implementation; *School Administration; School Restructuring; *Special Education

ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the instructional leadership role behavior of school principals in relation to the management of special education programs. A framework is presented of the principal's role in seven broad areas of instructional management: community, beliefs and experience, institutional context, principal's routine behaviors, instructional climate, instructional organization, and student outcomes. Results of case studies of five principals are examined, in which interviewers employed a shadowing technique and conducted reflective interviews on which "conceptual maps" of their leadership behavior could be built. The case studies result in conclusions concerning influences on principals' behavior toward students with disabilities, the principal's role in inclusion of special education students, principals as reactive rather than proactive in service delivery, principals' reliance on central office special education staff, and the impact of contextual factors surrounding the school. (Approximately 75 references.) (JDD)

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THE PRINCIPAL AS THE SPECIAL EDUCATION INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

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THE PRINCIPAL AS THE SPECIAL EDUCATION INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

The role of the principal in the delivery of special education services has become a topic of interest because of the drive to improve services to students with disabilities by their placement in regular education settings. This paper focuses on the instructional leadership role behavior of school principals in relationship to the management of special education programs.

I. Introduction

The need for strong instructional leadership has been noted in the research on effective schools and effective principals (Austin, 1979; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Clark, Lotto, & McCarthy, 1980; Lipham, 1981). Recent attention has been paid to the building principal's responsibility in carrying out the mandated policies of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, at the operational level.

According to Wang, Reynolds and Walberg (1986), current practices in regular schools "still leave a good deal of separateness, disjointedness, and inefficiency" in service to students both with and without disabilities (p. 31). Further, there is a growing awareness that an uneasy alliance exists between regular and special educators. Two separate educational systems have evolved over the years. School board members and superintendents are asking: who is in control--the federal government, the state legislature or us? These control issues affect the relationship between special educators and school principals on a daily basis.

As educational services to students with disabilities change, there is a need to describe and analyze the role behavior of school administrators in new ways, using variables or descriptors that are relevant to outcomes for all students. We also need to consider how administrators are prepared and selected to serve all student most appropriately. The purpose of this paper is threefold:

- 1) to delineate the instructional leadership role behavior of school principals in relationship to the management of special education programs;
- 2) to give direction to research and development or modification of training programs for building administrators by describing current and projected principal behaviors, and;
- 3) to raise questions about the relationship of new elements of principal/special education administrator behavior within an instructional effectiveness framework.

The paper begins with a discussion of the role of the principal in special education. Next is a review of the literature on the role of the principal as an instructional manager as presented by Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982). The works of Dwyer, Rowan, Lee and Bossert (1983), Dwyer, Lee, Barnett, Filby, and Rowan (1985) and Barnett (1987) are then presented outlining a framework of the principal's role in seven broad areas of instructional management. The authors document and analyze a framework of instructional management adapted from Dwyer et al. (1983, 1985). Finally, the authors raise questions to guide the observation of subsequent principal interactions with the special education program.

II. The Principal's Role in Special Education

The role of the principal in special education has generated significant interest over the past 14 years.* Most of the research relates to the management practice of principals in the administration of P.L. 94-142 and detailed suggestions for its implementation. In 1975, directors of special education were asked to respond to the degree of difficulty encountered in installing selected components of P.L. 94-142. The most problematic areas were the least restrictive environment requirements, and individualized education plans (IEPs). Other specific difficulties cited were: deadlines for IEP completion, scheduling of personnel, and lack of clarity of federal and state laws (Keilbaugh, 1980).

Not only does the special education administrator face such tasks in implementing P.L. 94-142; the school principal, by virtue of his/her leadership role, must deal with these same issues (Payne & Murray, 1974). Vergason et al. (1975) summarized this responsibility stating that:

The principal must maintain administrative authority over the day-to-day function of all staff within the building in order to have a coordinated, integrated program (Vergason, et al., 1975, p. 104)

The following list of "should do" suggestions presented by Cochrane and Westling (1977) are typical of the exhortative

*(See Caetano, 1978; DuClos, Litwin, Meyers & Ulrich, 1977; Gage, 1979; Payne & Murray, 1974; Smith, 1978; Vergason, Smith, Vinton & Wyatt, 1975, Zettel, 1979.

contents in articles dealing with the principal's responsibility over the last fourteen years since the passage of P.L. 94-142:

1. Principals should become cognizant of the characteristics of mildly handicapped children.
2. The principal should provide additional sources of information on exceptional children's education.
3. The principal should utilize special educators as support personnel.
4. The principal should consider alternatives for support.
5. The principal should utilize community resources.
6. The principal should utilize and allow for special materials funds for the regular educator.
7. The principal should encourage teachers to educate normal children about handicaps.
8. The principal should provide support for the exceptional child.
9. The principal should provide support for the faculty (pp. 506-510).

In summary, our assumptions and understandings of the role for principals in the delivery of special education have evolved from requirements of federal and state laws and from earlier works on the responsibilities of directors of special education as contrasted with those of building administrators.

The literature supports the view that the principal's behavior toward special education can influence the success of its programs. Specific role responsibilities for the delivery of special education have been addressed by several researchers and there is general agreement as to what this role ought to be. Although there is a consensus, in the context of both regular and special education, that the building principal has the primary responsibility for service delivery, the literature in educational administration until recently had only

...admonitions that describe what a good manager should do. The research and practice literatures did not present models that describe how certain management or leadership acts actually become translated into concrete activities which help children succeed in school (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee, 1982, p.34).

The authors believe the framework for instructional leadership developed by Bossert et al. (1982) provides a perspective grounded in practice to examine the role of principals and their behavior in relation to students with disabilities.

III. A Framework for Instructional Leadership

Bossert et al. (1982) conducted a review of effective schools research and effective principals; this led to their framework of instructional leadership. The review's purpose was to begin to measure the effects and interconnections between organizational climate and management behavior, and its effects on staff and student performance. Certain characteristics identified in research are linked to actual instructional management practices and principal interactions with other personnel within and outside the context of an individual school.

Four areas of principal leadership are gleaned from research on effective principals and successful schools: goals and production emphasis; power and decision making; organization/coordination; and human relations (p.37-38). Although the literature calls for some sort of structure to enhance principal effectiveness, very little is said about analysis at the classroom, school, or district levels (Bossert et al., 1982). Their view of the relationship between leadership and organization is depicted in Figure 1.

INSERT FIGURE 1:
A Framework for Examining Instructional Management

This framework illustrates the instructional management behavior of the principal as it affects both school climate and instructional organization. These contexts ultimately affect student learning, while at the same time the principal's own behavior is influenced by factors within and outside the school (i.e., personal, district, and external characteristics).

There is a need to establish links between principals' actions and learning outcomes, to get a "feel for" the environment that supports instruction. In other words, the relationship between what principals do and what students experience (Bossert et al., 1982) needs to be examined.

In a similar vein, Schein (1985) noted, "in fact, there is a possibility -- underemphasized in leadership research -- that the only thing of real importance that leaders do is create and manage culture and that the unique talent of leaders is their ability to work with culture" (p.2 , emphasis added). Thus, taking context into consideration is important in gaining insight as to how principals exercise power and influence over "formal and informal resources" and in determining how to resolve issues and gain support at the building level (Bossert et al., 1982, p. 55).

The Bossert framework for examining instructional management became the basis for a series of case studies leading to a more descriptive model of instructional leadership. Five pilot studies described by Dwyer, Rowan, Lee, Bossert (1983) provided a rich description of the seven factors and their

interrelationships in the original framework reported by Bossert et al. (1982). The staff at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development went into the field to investigate principal behavior and to examine how these professionals organize their work. The investigators employed a shadowing technique and conducted reflective interviews with five individuals, four elementary and one junior high principal, to identify activities and build "conceptual maps" of their leadership behavior.

The interaction of personal, institutional, and community variables on administrative behavior, identified by Dwyer and his associates (1983), formed the foundation for analyzing why and how principals do what they do, and how they shape the culture for instructional practice. One unintentional consequence of these case studies was that the principals in the study found the reflective interviews to be an effective way to determine whether or not they were accomplishing what they had intended with their actions (Dwyer et al., 1983). These case studies provided them with valuable insight into the realities of their world.

The first set of changes that evolved from these case studies was the renaming of five of the seven factors in the framework and delineating specific elements associated with each factor (see Figure 2). For example, the factor External Characteristics in Figure 1 was changed to Community in Figure 2 along with a specification of illustrative elements: locale, socio-economic status, ethnic composition, transiency of the population, and parent support for school programs. A second set

of seven case studies conducted by Dwyer et al. (1985) followed which established the basis for the detailed set of elements presented in Figure 2. These detailed elements provide a more effective means to describe principal instructional leadership behavior leading to desired student outcomes. They also provide an heuristic tool for reseachers to investigate the relationship between major factors and associated elements to determine their relative influence on principal decision-making in the context of the school.

INSERT FIGURE 2:
The Principal Role in Instructional Management

This framework of instructional leadership is used extensively in an inservice training program for school principals referred to as Peer Assisted Leadership (Barnett, 1987a). Principals who participate in PAL form partnerships; partners shadow (observe) one another, conduct reflective interviews, and build leadership models of their partners. The framework of instructional leadership is incorporated throughout the program as a means for assisting principals in collecting background information, in analyzing the wealth of data they are accumulating about their partners, and in designing their final leadership models. Besides helping them analyze their partners' circumstances, principals report that the framework provides a tool to help them reflect on their own actions and intentions (Barnett, 1987b).

This research and development initiative provides direction where there has been little theory-based research. Few models have been available to guide research and to develop training for

school administrators related to the educational leadership function. Research and training in special education to date has suffered from redundancy and rhetorical admonitions.

While the scope of the Dwyer et al. (1983, 1985) case studies is restricted and the data collected are local; grounded studies such as these are necessary to learn more about the nature and extent of principal participation in the implementation of special education programs. The authors believe the framework for instructional leadership portrays, for practitioners and researchers alike, what principals do and how their actions affect staff and student outcomes for all students.

IV. Adapted Framework Inclusive of Special Education

The impetus to search for a framework for instructional leadership inclusive of disabled students and professional educators in special education was three-fold: 1) recent research on excellent special education administrators; 2) the call for reform in special education; and 3) the lack of training models and mandates for the preparation of school principals in special education.

Critical success factors identified by Johnson and Burrello (1986) in rural settings, Burrello and Zadnik (1986) and Zadnik, (1985) from a national sample of effective special education directors, verify the need for directors to find meaningful ways to enhance the general/special education relationship. Three of their most significant findings, differentiate competence and excellence in special education management, and address the need to attend to the human and cultural factors that surround special

education in local school communities. They found that excellent administrators in special education:

- 1) establish rapport and a close working relationship with regular education and are responsive to building level personnel, problems, and concerns.
- 2) continually gain support from the entire educational community on the fact that equal educational opportunity for special education students requires unequal resources.
- 3) argued that the entire organization's belief structure must be grounded in an integrated principle of management, planning, and decision making where special education is a vital and an essential agent. (Zadnik, 1985, pp.77-78)

Their research underscores analysis by Schein (1985) and Anderson (1982) of organizational culture and climate. Schein states that "we simply cannot understand organizational phenomena without considering culture both as a cause of and as a way of explaining such phenomena" (p.311). Anderson (1982) notes that the image of an organization will vary depending on what elements and factors are "considered important in creating climate" (p. 376).

In the research on special education reform, Wang, Reynolds, and Walberg (1986) have called for school district waivers to allow for more local creativity in designing educational programs, not bound by categorical restrictions tied to state and federal regulations under P.L. 94-142. In the context of a paradigm shift that Skrtic (1987) has introduced to the special education community from Weick (1979), Clark et al. (1980), and Morgan (1987), school leadership research and practices need to be described with new metaphors, in contrast to mechanistic and rational models of organization and leadership behavior if they

are to respond to the future. Skrtic (1987) suggests adhocracy as a continuously adaptive organizational model to guide educational problem solving.

No current conceptions of special education leadership or training programs are available to transmit the necessary content and processes for managing special education at the building level. There are no mandates, few state certification requirements, or few established university training programs that respond to identified needs. Former Assistant Secretary Will (1986), researchers Wang, Reynolds and Walberg (1987), Hobbs (1975), and Skrtic (1987), have called for more collaboration between levels of government and between district and school based leadership. Organizationally tight mandates are in conflict with the distinctive loosely coupled organizational cultures that principals have to manage at the school level.

INSERT FIGURE 3:
A FRAMEWORK OF THE PRINCIPAL AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER
IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

The authors have adapted this framework to include elements drawn from the special education management literature to further research and to develop instructional experiences for school principals in university training programs. After a review of this research the authors took the adapted theoretical framework to a panel of twelve university trainers, building administrators, and directors of special education to gain consensus on those unique aspects and elements. The panel's elements added are: building programs and services, administrative evaluation, transportation, and suspension and expulsion under discipline to the author's research.

The highlighted elements and sub-elements were chosen by the panel to reflect key activities mandated by P.L. 94-142 and its amendments. They are documented in the literature as essential in the implementation of special education programs. The adapted model presented in Figure 3 is meant to be dynamic, to allow for application and interpretation by principals in their unique contexts. The framework is meant to raise questions, to test and discover how the special education management function is played out in individual school contexts. Hence, the dotted lines used in the adaptation as suggested by Dwyer et al. (1985) are meant to highlight the interaction of the seven factors in the framework.

The focus of research reflects the need for more concrete practices than abstract conceptions, in order to inform active practitioners who seek to learn an ever more refined conception and execution of their responsibilities. At the same time, it is important not to lose the sense of uniqueness that comes with each individual school culture.

Figure 3 is arranged in columns depicting Context/Input, Process/Throughput, and Results/Output dimensions for the principal as an instructional leader. Within each of these columns additions are discussed element by element, under each factor. Questions that we believe will increase our understanding of principal leadership and special education management are then discussed.

THE CONTEXT DIMENSION

The context dimension of the framework includes the first column in Figure 3 and the three factors of COMMUNITY, BELIEFS

AND EXPERIENCES, and THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT. Six elements have been added to the Context dimension.

FACTOR #1: COMMUNITY

Like the law itself, advocacy groups have not lost their impetus. Advocacy Groups constitute a significant force that affects local decision-making. Initially pressing for access to schools and programs for their constituents, these special interest groups now advocate for appropriate programs (Bliton, 1987), using litigation if necessary, to ensure that such programs are in place.

Advocacy groups seek responses that go beyond the procedural changes brought on by P.L. 94-142, expecting a "true" consensus among parents, advocates and school personnel who would hold the same goals and act in concert to attain them. If one believes a true consensus is needed for special education to flourish, practitioners need to determine how coalitions of constituents can be developed and maintained.

Firestone and Wilson (1985) have suggested describing how principals define the leadership task by classifying their commitment to a task. In the case of special education, this commitment would be evident by their willingness to keep working toward building consensus--"continuance commitment" (p. 13), their willingness to build "emotional bonds" between special education and the agenda of the school-- "cohesion commitment", and/or a willingness to maintain the status quo given "the rules and norms governing behavior"-- "control commitment" (Kanter, 1968). Actual office administrators might consider building

consensus as an intermediate measure of principal effectiveness in special education management.

FACTOR #2: BELIEFS AND EXPERIENCES

One of the most significant variables in the context dimension of the adapted framework is the addition of the Philosophy of Individual Differences element to the BELIEFS AND EXPERIENCES factor in the framework. Embracing a philosophy of individual differences is most significant in principals' routine behavior. Some authors have indicated that the principal's attitude toward the law, special education, and students with disabilities can play a major role in their capacity to model and lead others. Michael (1985) states, "By pretending that the issue can be managed without attention to intense feelings in ourselves and other stakeholders, we inadvertently convince ourselves and everybody else that we are not sincerely committed to the task, since each of us knows that value issues are of the essence" (p. 103).

Smith (1978) found that principals who had either taught students with disabilities or who had previous contacts with them were more positive in their attitudes toward mentally disabled students. Program effectiveness was also found to be best predicted by the principal's attitude toward the program (Smith, 1978; Tyler, 1987).

Several doctoral dissertations have examined principals' attitudes toward special education and the findings appear to be consistent. Dozier (1980) reported that when principals viewed persons with disabilities in an accepting or positive manner, they

perceived few problems in implementing P.L. 94-142. Steele (1980) found that a positive correlation existed between both principals' positive attitudes toward the disabled and their awareness and exposure to disabled people. O'Rourke (1980) discovered a significant relationship between both principals' and teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities. Tyler (1987) provided specific examples of teacher desired support from principals: (1) active listening; (2) consideration of teacher ideas; (3) communicating professional respect for teachers; (4) supporting teacher decisions made in the classroom; and (5) encouraging teacher involvement in decisions affecting them.

Questions and observations of practicing principals suggest that those with a rich history of exposure to and education about persons with disabilities make these principals more inclusive of programs based in their buildings as compared to principals without a similar history. Van Horn's (1989) contrasting case studies suggest that principals with a personal history and contact with student with disabilities are better able to describe their rationale for building inclusive schools.

FACTOR #3: INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

The first of four additions to the INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT is the context of the building itself, including faculty, staff, programs, and services. We have represented this addition to the framework simply as Building Programs/Services. We believe the school building is a community of professionals, with its own cumulative history, customs, norms, rituals, and stories, representing a set of forces that influences principal behavior.

New principals quickly assess this set of forces in determining how they will initially behave.

Certain questions emerge under this element: can staff attitudes and knowledge be influenced through principal leadership, to facilitate commitment to retaining students with disabilities in regular classes? What "program regularities" (Sarason, 1971) hinder teacher to teacher interactions and planning for exceptional students?

The district's Administrative Evaluation System is also added as an element that contributes to principal support and involvement with special education programs. Research on effective special education program leadership conducted by Burrello and Zadnik (1986) offers strong support for the inclusion of building level administration into the mainstream of special education leadership. This research needs to be extended to focus on the presence of principal behavior change in the face of district expectations, support and reward systems for implementing model school-based programs.

To test the significance of this element, it is necessary to consider if the presence or absence of an administrative evaluation system with special education management components affects a principal's perceptions of his or her responsibilities. Once these perceptions are known, observation of the principal modeling routine behaviors for staff, in conferences and in face to face situations, involving mainstreaming would be important.

Under District Programs, Transportation Services has been added as an element that influences placement and programming in

special education. The nature of the needs of students with disabilities requires transportation routes to be arranged in a flexible manner, using vans, minibuses, or even taxicabs to transport these students.

The procedural nature of most state mandates and P.L. 94-142 has helped to influence the growth of intermediate and cooperative programs as a service delivery vehicle for students with disabilities in smaller rural and suburban communities throughout the United States. We have added **Intermediate and Cooperative Programs** to INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT in the adapted framework. When intermediate program staff provide direct service programs, assuming the responsibility for local district shared services, such organizational arrangements may create more distance between students, teachers, parents, and principals in local schools.

A primary question emerges from the interaction of the intermediate or cooperative unit within the context of the principal's framework: Do more remote service delivery vehicles promote or hinder the development of local programs? A working consensus in an intermediate or cooperative program setting can be quite different from one within a local school setting. How do role responsibilities and authority of principals in cooperative versus local school arrangements differ? If programs are decentralized, what behaviors does a principal need to emphasize? What impact does a local arrangement have on the principal's capacity to build a working consensus? What role has the principal played in the return of these programs to local districts where it has occurred?

THE PROCESS DIMENSION

The process or throughput dimension of the adapted framework, the second and third columns of Figure 3, includes the following factors: PRINCIPAL ROUTINE BEHAVIORS, INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE, and INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION. Each of these factors has additional elements highlighted, based upon our research synthesis for which we had confirmation by our expert panel.

FACTOR #4: PRINCIPAL ROUTINE BEHAVIOR

This area represents the beginning of the process in a systems model of instructional leadership. Here, external and internal organizational forces, represented by the community and institutional context factors, converge on the principal along with his or her own personal BELIEFS AND EXPERIENCES. The output of principal behavior impacts on the instructional climate and organization of the school. Under the factor of PRINCIPAL ROUTINE BEHAVIORS we have added one primary element, Team Building and Delegating and eleven sub-elements, beginning with Building a True Consensus as a subset of Goal Setting and Planning.

Goffman (1959) stated that "true" attitudes or beliefs "can be ascertained only indirectly" (p. 2). What an individual communicates with words can be completely different from what is inferred from one's actions. Working consensus stresses agreement and opposition is underplayed. However, it is difficult to set goals and develop plans for a school site, while maintaining standards of behavior which one does not believe in. For this reason, the authors suggest a principal should give high priority to Building True Consensus in his/her school. A district's

Administrative Evaluation System may provide a starting point but goals and routine actions need to reflect more than an obligation to maintaining consensus because deviations from set standards could be penalized. New rules and regulations are introduced into school systems, giving the appearance of consensus, or what Skrtic (1987) calls "symbolic and ceremonial compliance" (p. 43).

A true consensus may be desired in contrast to a "working" consensus and/or an "apparent" consensus that range from tolerance of competing perspectives to little or no connection between goals and means held by parents, staff, and advocates (Goffman, 1959 in Bossert et al., 1982, p.47). Bossert et al. (1982) argue "where teachers do not observe each other's teaching and where students do not experience different teaching practices, consistency between verbal expressions of goals and actual behavior may not be needed" (p. 48). Without such consistency, disabled students and their teachers receive a mixed message alternating between inclusiveness and exclusionism. Lack of consensus is more apparent in special education since students and teachers frequently interact and observe one another in mainstreaming situations.

The remaining element additions, derived from research on the role responsibilities of principals and special education leadership personnel, were behaviors that fit under routine behaviors in the existing framework. The specific additions under Monitoring were routine examination of Pre-referral and Referral requests for special education services from teachers and parents, the Individual Education Planning Process and its conjunctive

activities of Developing, Supervising, and Reviewing the IEP Process. Specific element additions under Communicating include Conferencing, Obtaining Permission to Test, Giving Parents Rights, Determining Eligibility and Obtaining Parental Consent for Placement. These functions, while largely procedural and specific in federal and state laws and regulations, also relate to supporting faculty, building teams and involving parents in their child's educational program.

Studies regarding the specific role responsibilities for principals under Monitoring and Communicating are abundant. There are two studies used here as examples for the development of principals' competencies in special education. The Betz (1977) and Nevin (1979) survey utilized questionnaires and called upon expert panels to verify competency statements before distribution. This methodology is consistent with other research efforts which address the principal's role in special education.*

Data suggest that directors of special education should be competent as policy planners, rule and regulation interpreters, monitors, and facilitators of building based activity, with principals assuming the daily implementation and operational aspects of any school program. In support of this role differentiation, Robson (1981) as well as Betz (1977) reported both directors of special education and principals believe that directors were outsiders and should not intervene in the daily management of building based programs.

*Amos & Moody, 1977; Lietz & Kaizer, 1979; Raske, 1979; Neid, 1980; Robson, 1981; Betz (1977); Nevin (1979); Anastasio (1981).

A major criticism of these competency studies centers on the possible unaccountable differences between what the principals believe to be important when given a list of responsibilities, and what they are actually doing with regard to special education services delivered in their buildings. Brown's (1981) qualitative study helped to fill this gap with on-site observation and interviews with four elementary principals. Fourteen critical areas that affected daily management of special education programs were identified by principals. Brown also identified the local special education director as the primary source of support and education of principals, regarding special education. Other studies by Davis (1979) and Fenton, Yoshida, and Kaufman (1978), Leitz and Kaiser (1979) and Windsor (1979), reinforce principal desire to participate in decision-making related to multidisciplinary pupil planning teams, program evaluation, personnel management, and program maintenance.

The questions that evolve out of this review are: What are the implications for principal effectiveness and practice if special education is added to the building principal's instructional leadership agenda? What kind of impression does a principal give that leads others to act voluntarily in accordance with legal and district administrative plans for students with disabilities? How does the increasing involvement of principals affect their need for support and collaboration with special education management? As best practices emerge, what is the most effective way to prepare principal candidates in training to adjust to changes in role responsibilities? Do the nature and

type of programs for students in special education challenge principal leadership in different ways than those principals with no programs and do these differences affect their ability to manage?

The additional elements under PRINCIPAL ROUTINE BEHAVIORS are Team Building and Delegating. Team Building is best addressed by Skrtic (1987) who argues that the major conflict that P.L. 94-142 caused was the introduction of a problem-solving orientation into an existing professional bureaucratic structure that has historically provided little opportunity for focusing on the individual needs of students. This problem-solving orientation was developed with P.L. 94-142 "requires school organizations to be something they cannot be without a total reorganization" (Skrtic, 1987, p. 43). In a school functioning as an adhocracy, groups of teachers, psychologists, social workers, speech and language specialists, and other related service personnel come together to determine the eligibility of students for special services; to place students; to plan individual educational plans; to involve parents or guardians; and to annually reevaluate eligibility, placement, and the IEP itself.

The Team Building behavior of the principal and, in part, that of departmental chairpersons in high schools (Van Horn, 1989), is important in relationships between and among leadership, regular and special education personnel. Faculty and staff need a vehicle and a model of behavior to communicate with one another. This problem solving orientation unique to an adhocracy, but foreign to a loosely coupled professional bureaucracy, is

fundamental to planning, sharing, and learning with one another. The issues at stake in serving students with disabilities are no longer procedural, but substantive. Principals play a key leadership role in resolving not only who gets what, but how.

Delegating and building team leadership are complementary principal routine behaviors. Developing teacher leaders and team leaders empowers educators and, consequently, increases faculty maturity in assuming more responsibility for building wide issues and concerns. Successful leaders do not view teachers as workers to be programmed and closely supervised, but as professionals to be inspired and held accountable for shared values and commitments (Sergiovanni, 1987). Leadership and organizational analysis studies view leadership as sensemaking. Organizational cultures that support professionals practicing, deciding, and developing, but not at the expense of technical aspects of leadership, clearly emphasize the human dimension of leadership, its values and ends.

Sergiovanni (1987) cautions that the effective schools movement may be too mechanistic. Variables associated with effective schools are alternating tightly and loosely coupled and in Sergiovanni's view, are misplaced. He believes the variables should be tightly coupled with regard to goals, values, and a sense of mission, while at the same time loosely coupled to "allow wide discretion in how the values are to be embodied" (p. 126-127).

The questions are: Does team building and delegation of leadership by the principal lead to more cohesion and mutual sharing of individual expertise amongst teachers? Does this

principal routine behavior make a greater difference in the principal's capacity to manage critical special education issues within the school bureaucracy, than do other behaviors, as perceived by their staff?

FACTOR #5: INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE

Difficulty in assessing the culture and climate of the school as a unique community is well established by Anderson (1982) in her review of the research on school climate. Her research review focus suggested that building level climate studies, while complex and a methodological nightmare, do indicate some level of agreement: (1) climates are unique to each organizational unit; (2) while climate differences are discernible, they are elusive, complex, and difficult to describe and measure; (3) climate is influenced by, but not a substitute for, features such as student body characteristics or classroom differences; (4) climate does affect many student outcomes, values, personal growth and satisfaction of students and staff; and (5) understanding the influence of climate may improve our understanding and prediction of student behavior (Anderson, 1982, pp. 370-371).

Under the INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE factor, six sub-elements have been added. Research uncovered a number of specific additions that principals, special education middle managers, and their respective superordinates identified as elements, affecting school climate and its openness to students with disabilities. Under Physical Plant, Brown (1981) argued for Accessibility and Special Arrangements for more severely disabled students.

Wheelchair movements of students require particular attention and sensitivity to issues of access and adapting space in specialized classes, such as high school science and laboratory courses, as well as to the building itself. Another difficulty involving those with physical and multiple disabilities is that these students are often unable to or need assistance in feeding themselves.

The Location of programs and services is also a Physical Plant issue under the INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE factor. This is both a district planning problem and an individual school principal management concern. From the district perspective, the problem of providing space for fewer students in age appropriate settings consistently has been a nightmare for local special education managers. Districts involved in intermediate units have an even tougher negotiating job. At the building level, the issue is where to house students so that their disabilities do not further segregate them from their age appropriate peers (Biklen, 1985).

The concept of Peer Tutoring as a way to facilitating both student social and cognitive, development through modeling appropriate behavior is an example of a social instructional intervention. Wilcox (1986) has argued for peer tutors in a variety of roles to model personal and social behavior for students with moderate to severe disabilities. Direct observation of students serving as peer tutors suggests students gain more understanding of disabilities, increased motivation to overcome adversity, and an interest in pursuing careers in human services.

Under Discipline, Suspension and Expulsion, are policies explicitly reflected in P.L. 94-142, in most state statutes and most recently in litigation. Leone's (1985) review of litigation and the recent Supreme Court decision on Honig vs. the State of California suggest three primary questions in this area:

- (1) Is suspension and expulsion of a handicapped pupil a change in educational placement; and as such, does it entitle students to the procedural safeguards of P.L. 94-142?
- (2) Can a handicapped student be suspended for misbehavior related to a handicapping condition?
- (3) If misbehavior is related to a handicapping condition, is suspension or expulsion a denial of free and appropriate public education guaranteed by P.L. 94-142? (p. 113).

These decisions are atypical in that school leaders are required to consult with substantive experts to determine that the disability did not cause the behavior that led to the decision to expel. Judgment is often heavily influenced by the effect of the behavior and its impact on the student, causing him/herself physical harm or harm to others. Setting expectations for all students and applying sanctions appropriately constitute a major part of the instructional climate of the schools. School principals need to gauge the impact of compromising standards on school climate for students and staff alike.

The authors agree with Anderson's (1982) conclusion that climate research does effect movement toward selected student and faculty outcomes. Observations and interviews with outstanding school principals and special education administrators indicate that if principals do not confront the prevailing effect toward inclusion of programs for students with disabilities, those

programs do not succeed. Although apparent consensus may emerge with mandates and the political force of local advocates, the programs will remain separate and distinct. Special education staff and students will remain outsiders looking into the mainstream of school society.

The questions related to INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE might best be focused on teacher and student perception of acceptance and inclusion. What principal behaviors communicate inclusion versus exclusion of student with disabilities and their teachers? For example, do principals encourage and support the special education faculty and staff to develop behavior management programs with their peers to prevent misbehavior and shape the adaptive learning skills of their students? Do students perceive a double standard in the application of student discipline policy? Does principal support of peer tutoring affect the recruitment, training and assignment of peer tutors?

FACTOR #6: THE INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION

This section has been adapted based upon emerging best practices in special education over the past twenty years. Under Academic Curriculum, Vocational Programming and Community-Based Training are the two key additional sub-elements. Work Experience and Job Placement, Maintaining Work Relationships, and Independent Living are outcomes valued for all students but are the key focus of a curriculum for students with severe disabilities.

Research on the graduates of special education in Colorado and Vermont clearly indicate that holding a job in high school during the school year and summers is the best predictor of post-

school success for disabled students (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985; Mithaug, Horiuchi, & Fanning, 1985). Fardig, Algozzine, Schwartz, et al. (1985) also found that in rural areas mildly disabled students who stayed in school longer made a more effective post-school adjustment than those who did not. These authors also found little correlation to after school success because of vocational educational programming inadequacies. In cases where students with disabilities did succeed, both vocational programming and community-based training were tied to opportunities for training and learning before students left school. These interventions, combined with planned attempts to help disabled students develop social relationships through peer tutoring, job coaching, and participation in extracurricular activities, lead to more healthy peer interactions between the non-disabled and the disabled both in school and out of school.

Although district level administration plays an important policy role in vocational education planning and placement, principals and their staff are more likely to influence community-based training and extracurricular participation of students with disabilities.

Such principal routine behaviors as scheduling, organizing, and providing teachers, staff, and non-disabled students time to participate as role models and peer tutors for students with disabilities is crucial. Principals also need to assess and support staff supervised work opportunities from their office to the athletic fields. Each can provide excellent in-school job training opportunities for students with disabilities.

Under the heading of Structures and Placement, Building-based Teams, Placement Options, Emergency Procedures, and Mainstreaming are noted as specific best practices that lead to appropriate and comprehensive services for students with disabilities. Placement Options refer to a range of programming alternatives from special self-contained classrooms. Emergency Procedures are suggested practices that need to be outlined to deal with extreme acting out behaviors, provisions for suspension and expulsion, transportation, medical referrals, and parent notification for students with a variety of physical and emotional health needs.

The Least Restrictive Environment provision is the most pervasive and debatable issue since the passage of P.L. 94-142. The provision for an education to be delivered to the maximum extent appropriate with disabled students' age-appropriate peers is the salient issue related to mainstreaming. The debate centers on who gets referred for special services and whether or not the "right kids" are determined eligible. Wang, Reynolds, and Walberg (1987) argue that the structure of the law and the categorical nature of serving students with disabilities has led to disjointed incrementalism and proceduralism. A fundamental finding of their research synthesis was that the ineffective diagnostic or classification and placement procedures used in special education, with respect to the mildly disabled has led to the overrepresentation of minority and under achieving students into special education programs. They describe these concepts by stating that disjointed incrementalism

refers to what happens when a series of narrowly framed programs is launched one by one, each program seemingly well justified in its own time and way, but based on the assumption that it does not interact with others. Each program has its own eligibility, accountability, funding, and advocacy systems. The result after a period of time, is extreme disjointedness, which also leads to excesses of proceduralism, including the tedious, costly, and scientifically questionable categorizing of students and programs (Wang, Reynolds & Walberg, 1987, p.5).

The outcome of these twin problems extenuate the inefficiencies which in turn are "inflated by the lack of evidence supporting the process by which school programs are partitioned and managed" (Wang et al., 1987, p.7). These authors argued that the solution to this problem will come through efficiencies, not through more appropriations. Strong local building level leadership, with the freedom to plan and build coordinated programs for all students at risk, will serve all students better than our current fragmented system of services.

Mainstreaming means much more than complying with the law. The addition of All School Functions, Academics and Extra-Curricular as sub-elements point to a more encompassing definition of mainstreaming. The National Regional Resource Panel, in compiling Effectiveness Indicators in Special Education (1986), stated that students with disabilities should have access to and be encouraged to participate in all academic, vocational and extracurricular programs and activities on regular school campuses. Wilcox et al. (1987) suggest that in effective programs for students with severe disabilities, students are seen as individuals within the student body and thus should be allowed to participate in All School Functions. Stainback and Stainback

(1984) believe it is time to "turn the spotlight to increasing the capabilities of the regular school environment, the mainstream, to meet the needs of all students" (p.110).

Research has revealed that the principal makes a difference in the overall achievement of children (Goodman, 1985). As a member of the building-based support team, the principal is involved in decisions about the placement of students with disabilities and is in a position to ensure that students with disabilities participate in regular education, including Academics and Extra-Curricular programs, so these students will have regular interaction with non-disabled peers. Training of academic skills may need to be taught in context rather than in isolation, to meet the needs of students with more severe disabilities.

Administrators strive to improve instructional effectiveness for all students and this goal includes the area of Behavior Management, added as a sub-element of Pedagogy. The effective schools research has identified standards for classroom behavior: explicit, with rules, discipline procedures and consequences planned in advance (Anderson, 1980). While there is a wide range of behaviors exhibited in any classroom, the existence of special classes and centers has perpetuated the notion that students with any behavior problem, especially a labeled one, does not belong in the regular school or classroom.

Behavior Management is a major source of conflict in discussions involving mainstreaming students with disabilities into regular programs. The building principal demonstrates leadership by setting high expectations for all students.

Students with disabilities should "have access to some regular classes with support and instructional modification as necessary" (Wilcox, 1987, p. 13).

Consistent with the concept of Building Based Teams, principals play a critical leadership role in emphasizing Consultation between regular and special educators as students move from special classes to less restrictive environments. Special education faculty and staff have often not been trained in providing consultative services to regular education faculty and staff and this contributes to difficulties in filling the consultative role (Haight, 1984). Building principals provide support and leadership in facilitating cooperative efforts between regular and special education personnel, emphasizing the improvement of instruction through consultation. Regular classroom teachers should also have opportunities for inservice on topics related to students with disabilities. Likewise, when special class teachers have regular school duties and attend faculty meetings, principals will find it easier to foster working relationships between these two groups, historically segregated.

The strategy promoted here would begin by determining how principals targeted as effective school leaders have planned and coordinated services for all students. Descriptive studies of these school leaders should help us identify similarities between routine behaviors and symbolic and cultural leadership actions.

Under the Instructional Organization factor, our additions are primarily specific interventions that require changes in student to student, staff to staff, and staff to student

expectations, observable in patterns of interaction. The impact of changes on practices should include assessing the expectations of parents and other outside constituencies.

THE OUTCOMES DIMENSION

The Outcomes Dimension of the framework includes the STUDENT OUTCOMES factor, represented by the fourth column in Figure 3. Many INSTRUCTIONAL CLIMATE AND INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION decisions a principal makes can have significant impact on the outcomes factor. This is especially true for students with severe physical, mental or emotional disabilities where outcomes related to independent living and maintaining social and work relationships spell the difference between success and failure in the school program and in post-school environments.

FACTOR #7: STUDENT OUTCOMES

The additional elements of Work Experience and Job Placement, Maintaining Relationships and Independent Living are meant to emphasize that schools must provide an extensive range of experiences to prepare students with disabilities for functioning in nonschool and post-school environments (Brown, 1981). For students with severe disabilities, these outcomes, and those related to the world of work, require the community as well as the school to assume a primary role in curriculum design and implementation. Student outcomes are not assumed to be someone else's responsibility, but are a joint responsibility, often involving agencies outside the school. These outcomes represent the needed decision rules by which staff schedule and organize for instruction both within the school and in the community itself.

A commitment to provide students with disabilities an integrated educational experiences will most likely require some adjustment of what is commonly considered a "good education". It might also require some exceptions to established school rules that were not made with the instructional needs of students with disabilities in mind (Wilcox et al, 1987). The principal must not only accept increasing opportunities for these students, he/she should expect and encourage physical, social and functional integration.

The inclusion of Work Experience and Job Placement elements underscores the fact that training should take place in the community and on the job, not only in the classroom and the school. Training on real work tasks in actual work settings is essential for students with severe disabilities to find and maintain employment following graduation (Wilcox, 1987).

Research has demonstrated that there is improvement in students' life-styles following implementation of a community-based model (Wilcox, 1987). Data have shown a significant increase in student performance of activities in integrated community settings outside of school hours. Participating fully in society not only means finding and maintaining employment but also includes Maintaining Relationships. As principals encourage and model a continuum of mainstreaming options within their schools, and districts foster cooperation within a community to facilitate interactions with schools, successful transitions from school to post-school environments will be more likely.

The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), within the U. S. Department of Education, has stated the goal of preparing students with disabilities to be productive, participating members of society, and to live as independently as possible (Wilcox, 1987). For students with disabilities to function effectively in a wide variety of nonschool environments, they must acquire Independent Living skills. The OSERS transition model suggests that living successfully in a community should be the primary target of transitional services; a major component of the model is employment.

The questions regarding outcomes are: Can we trace the influences of the principal and their impact on faculty and staff and STUDENT OUTCOMES in special education? Do principals communicate educational philosophy, goals, priorities, and expectations for students with disabilities to staff, parents, and the community? How do principals unify their faculty and staff to accomplish such a goal? Can we define the role principals and teachers take in forming networks to facilitate acceptance of students with disabilities in a local community? How do principals and teachers gain the support of employers and the approval of the school board in implementing a community-based program for students with disabilities?

V. Research Update

Four school districts were involved, representing urban, rural and suburban contexts in a midwestern state. The methodological procedures used in these case studies were based on principles of a naturalistic paradigm (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Ad description of the principals' daily activities and interactions and school surroundings was gathered, allowing the case study reader to get a sense of the school setting. In addition, frameworks constructed by each principal were developed, representing contextual factors, routine behaviors, instructional climate organization, as well as student outcomes.

The principals were selected from nominations by the special education director in the school district. After extensive interviews, the directors were asked to recommend principals they felt were successful in dealing with special education programs in their schools. Once nominated by the director, the following criteria were used in selecting the principals:

- 1) each setting had to include a range of special education program types serving students with mild to severe disabilities,
- 2) the principal had to have had a minimum of two years experience in his/her present setting,
- 3) the principal had to commit to participating in the study and learning about him/herself and the special education programs in the building.

Data collection consisted of semi-structured interviews, observation, and document analysis. The principal, special education teachers the special education department heads, parents, and any others identified by the principals and teachers were interviewed. The teachers interviewed were nominated by the principal. Observations of the principal and special education classrooms were conducted, in addition to a document analysis of the principals' job description, the school district's administrative handbook for special education, and any procedural guidelines for assessment, placement, and re-evaluation of

special education students. All interviews and observations occurred in the school. As data was obtained, it was examined and categorized based on emerging trends. A total of fifty days were spent (10 days per site) to allow for prolonged engagement with the participants in their natural settings.

Key Findings

The following findings and conclusions are based on the data collected in the five case studies. Two composite frameworks (Figures 4 & 5) were developed to provide a synthesis of data gathered from the elementary and secondary sites. The frameworks were compared with the framework suggested by Burrello et al. (1988) To determine similarities and differences in elementary and secondary school settings. The student outcomes, instructional organization, and instructional climate sections of the frameworks are nearly identical to the Burrello, et al., model. While the composite frameworks of the principals and the Burrello, et. al. framework are remarkably similar, there are several variations worth noting.

Conclusions and Discussion of Findings

Five conclusions are presented and discussed based upon the five case studies reviewed here. The implication of this research for school principals and central office support personnel in special education are highlighted.

- 1) The beliefs and attitudes of the principals toward special education are the key factor influencing their behavior toward students with disabilities.

The principals in these research projects all displayed a positive attitude toward the acceptance of special education

students and programs in their schools. This attitude was based on their own personal philosophies about the benefits for both regular and special education students when they are integrated in to the same school site. Their positive attitude was a critical factor in creating a climate of acceptance for all students and programs in their schools. They communicated their attitude consistently in a variety of ways to students, staff, and parents and expected them to support this attitude through their own behaviors.

Research appears to support the conclusion that it is the attitude of the building principal toward mainstreaming and other aspects of special education that is vital to the success of special education programs (Hyatt, 1987). Hyatt also supports the belief that the development of positive attitudes toward all aspects of the educational process, including special education, is prerequisite to the principal's effectiveness as an instructional leader. While high school principals find involvement is of a more symbolic nature, it is still the attitude of the principal which is an important factor in developing a climate and culture to the acceptance of students with disabilities at the high school level as well.

- 2) The most important role the principal plays in the inclusion of special education students into the school is that of symbolic leader.

Sergiovanni (1984) lists five forces of leadership which are available to administrators to bring about or preserve changes needed to improve schooling. He emphasizes that it is the often neglected symbolic force, however, which is one of the characteristics of an excellent school.

The principals in these research investigations understood the importance of their behaviors and the symbolism attached to them. Visiting special education classrooms, seeking out and spending time with students with disabilities, touring the building; and taking time to be involved with educational concerns of both regular and special students were all ways these principals provided a vision of the acceptance of special education students and programs. The principals in this study were indeed creating a commitment toward the education of students with disabilities in their schools. Tyler (1983) also points out that effective principals are very much aware of the symbolism of even the most mundane of their administrative acts and they take ordinary occasions to demonstrate their beliefs. By embracing special education, the principals in this study conveyed to the rest of the school that "these students belong here" (Biklen, 1985).

3) Principals are reactive rather than proactive in the delivery of special education services.

Despite the fact that the elementary school principal is in a position to determine the day-to-day effect that P.L. 94-142 has on the general education program (Hanson, 1986), it is still true that the principals in these research investigations are generally reacting to special education decisions made outside of their schools. It was never a question of whether the special education programs would be a part of their buildings. In all of these cases, it was a matter of accommodating those programs once the principals learned of their placement in their schools. The beliefs and attitudes of the principals about students with

disabilities led them to react positively to the placement of special education programs in their schools and to create the climate of acceptance which exists for students with disabilities.

Basically, it appears that principals have accepted the reactive nature of the special education initiative. They recognize the constraints placed upon them by the interpretation of the law or central office directives. Brown (1981) points out, however, that principals can realize creativity within the constraints of federal and state laws. The exploration of building level alternatives, development of working teams, provisions for mainstreaming, staff in-services, and regular and special education student interactions are all examples of the ways the five principals in these studies employed creativity and initiative in the management of special education students and programs in their schools.

At the secondary schools, both principals felt special education was no different from other departments in their schools. Yet not future plans were actively being pursued for students with disabilities. The impetus for change appeared to be stimulated from the outside, the central office and/or state department issues. It remains to be seen whether, in the future, these principals decide to behave in a proactive manner and recruit special education programs to their schools. To date they have followed and waited for new opportunities to emerge.

- 4) Principals rely on the central office special education staff for direct support and consultation rather than direct involvement with building level programs.

The principals in these studies enjoyed a basically autonomous relationship with their district office special education administration in the day to day management of programs for students with disabilities. These principals had been identified through the nomination process for this study because of their success in managing special education students and programs in their schools. One result of being identified as an exemplary principal by the special education director was that the principals had developed a level of trust with the director and, therefore, were allowed to manage special education programs in their schools with little involvement from district office. The directors pointed out that there were principals in many schools who needed to be monitored more closely in order to assure that regulations were being followed and that students were receiving an appropriate educational program.

This type of relationship with the special education administration appeared to allow the principals, within the constraints of the law, to make decisions about their own students and programs. It also meant that the principals in these studies were able to involve their own staffs in the decision-making process, which fostered ownership of the programs by the entire school. No one felt some outside force - in this case the district office - was dictating to him/her about how the program should be operated at the school.

The principals in these studies were quick to point out, however, that their special education director was an important source of information for them. These principals sensed their

own lack of knowledge on occasion about disabling conditions or placement options, and they relied heavily on their director in those instances. Brown (1981) has suggested that the director of special education is used most frequently by principals as a source of information. It was apparent that the five principals felt it was important for a positive relationship to be maintained with their directors. The special education directors, on the other hand, realized that they can impact special education to a large degree by acting as a facilitator to the principal (Brown, 1981).

- 5) The contextual factors surrounding the school appear to make a difference in the work of the principal, but they do not appear to have a significant impact on the acceptance of special education students and programs in the school.

Murphy (1988) points out that the district context in which principals work is a major environmental condition that has largely been ignored in studies of instructional leadership. He believes that districts shape and direct principal behaviors, that district characteristics can affect the implementation of instructional programs, and that there are opportunities and constraints on principal behavior created by the organizational setting in which they work. He further believes that researchers have largely ignored community influences on the exercise and interpretation of instructional leadership behaviors. Dwyer et al. (1983) believe that principals' actions are also swayed by state and federal programs.

The principals in these studies, as detailed in each of their case studies, certainly appear to be affected by the

context in which they work. These contextual differences surface mainly in how each principal manages his/her time rather than in the overall attitude about the acceptance of special education students and programs into their schools. While the urban principal may spend more time dealing with the personal day-to-day needs of both regular and special education students, this principal is not less accepting of special education than the rural or suburban principal. It does appear that the beliefs a principal has about special education students and programs has a much greater impact on that principal's behavior and acceptance of special education than the contextual factors of that school or community.

VI. Summary

Principals have a critical role in creating and maintaining effective school programs for students with disabilities. The framework of the principal as instructional leader suggested here could have significant potential for principal behavior, training and the ways in which schools are organized.

Skrtic (1987) believes:

The goal of the special education professional and advocacy communities nationally and locally should be to increase ambiguity and thereby set the occasion for the prevailing paradigm to be reshuffled, opening it up to problem-solving values in the form of new presumptions, expectations, and commitments... (p. 43).

Our focus on the principal as the instructional leader in special education is an attempt to join our research on leadership in special education to that of the research on the principalship in this time of reform in education. Effective

schools have been found to be adaptable and responsive, filled with people who are problem-solvers, who define important values (Clark, Lotto, & Astuto, 1984; Skrtic, 1987). Education reform and school improvement since 1983 have left special education apart from the school-based focus of the reform agenda, since separation hinders the mainstreaming agenda for students, staff, and patrons alike.

Special educators are ambivalent about this shift in instructional leadership. The Council of Administrators of Special Education (CASE), the primary professional organization of leaders in special education, has recognized that they must confront the role ambiguity and begin to study the culture of the school and the process of change that Sarason (1971):

...The new struggle must be formed by a broader and more comprehensive understanding of the complex web of social, political, cultural, economic, and organizational inter-relationships within which things like education, reform, and 'disability' exist (Skrtic, 1987, p. 52).

A reconceptualization of the structure, goals, and responsibilities of the school in educating of all students is taking place in response to new pressures both in regular and special education. Issues addressed in this paper tend to become more abstract and ambiguous as conflicts over education of students with disabilities has expanded. In an attempt to clarify issues related to P. L. 94-142, points in question are distorted and new and different issues are generated. In limiting attention to the building principal, the authors' intent is not to suggest that the framework is thus restricted; indeed, it may be relevant in explaining the dynamics of many other aspects of the educational system.

Principals in the role of special education instructional leader can help shape new agendas and direct our attention to vital linkages between regular and special education. We believe more qualitative research on outlier districts and individual schools is needed to help describe principal effectiveness. It is the authors' desire that this paper will spark research efforts to develop the adapted framework and better identify the relationship between principal behavior and student outcomes.

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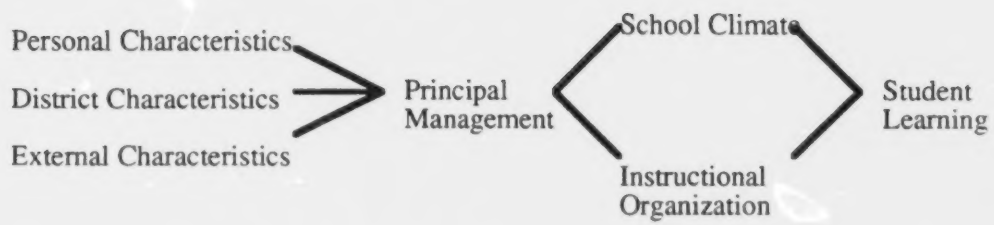


Figure 1
Influences on Principal Behavior

CONTEXT/INPUT

COMPOSITE ELEMENTARY FRAMEWORK

PROCESS/THROUGHPUT

RESULTS/OUTPUT

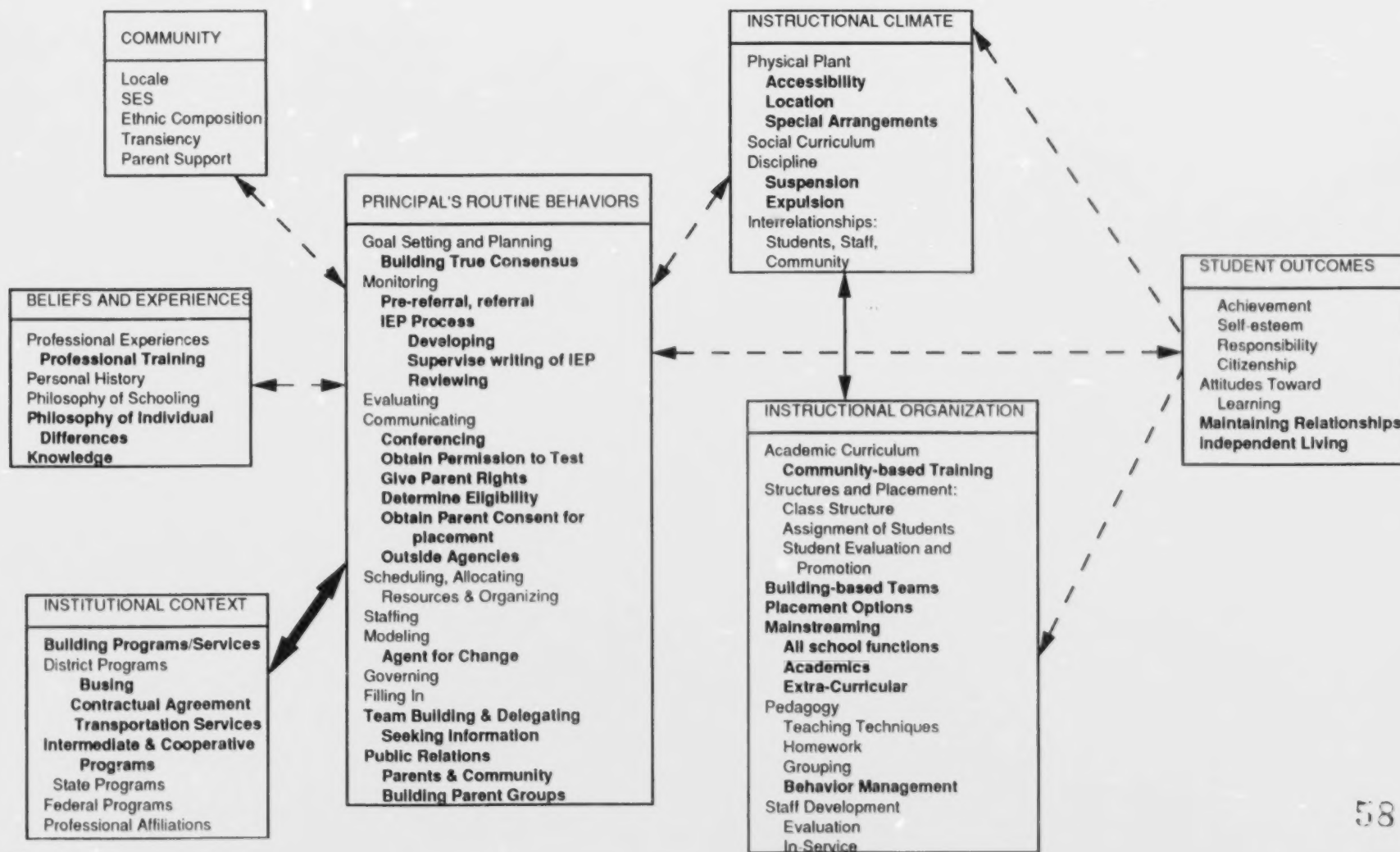


Figure 2: From dissertation of Linda DeClue

CONTEXT/INPUT

PROCESS/THROUGHPUT

RESULT/OUTPUT

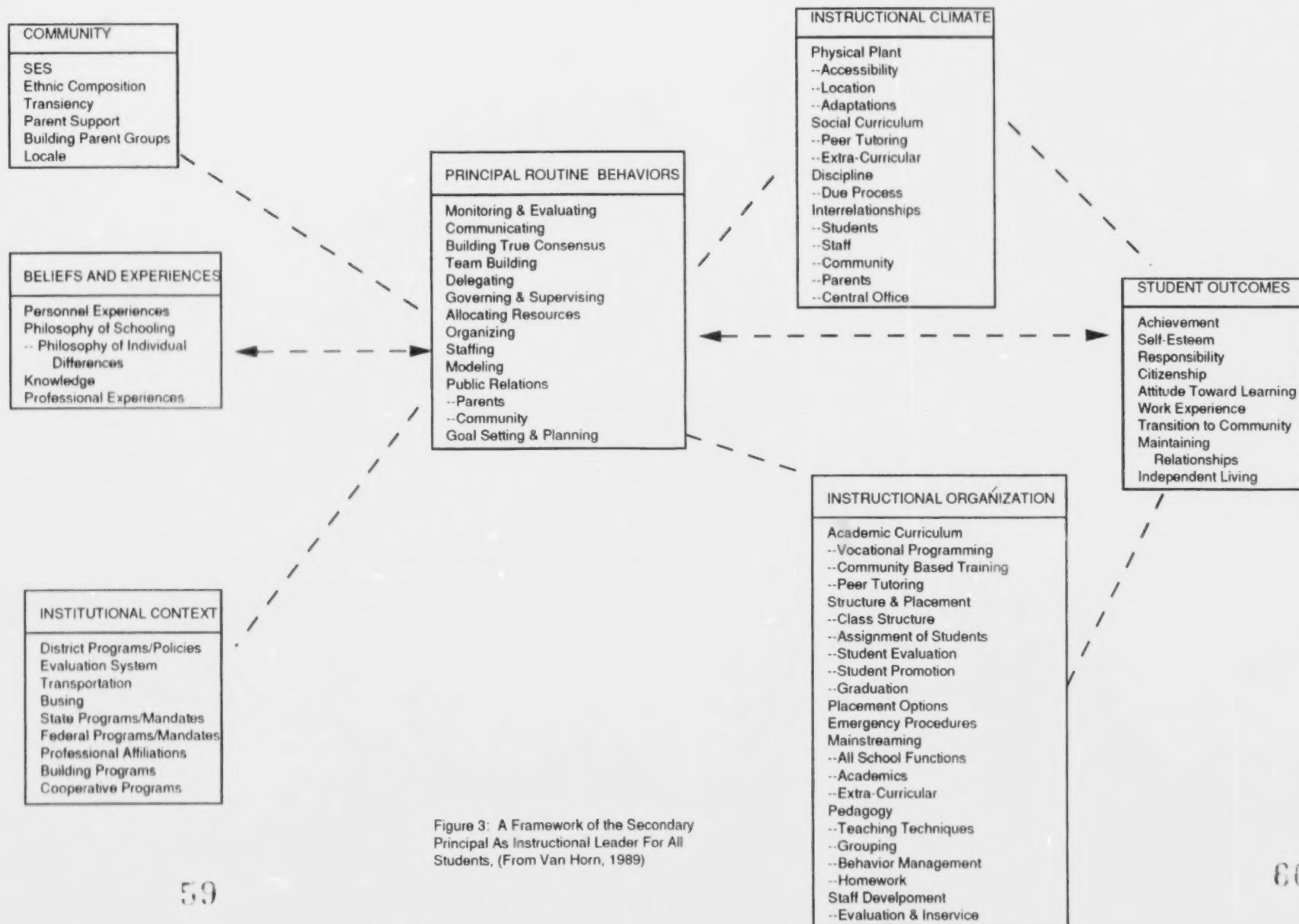


Figure 3: A Framework of the Secondary Principal As Instructional Leader For All Students, (From Van Horn, 1989)

CONTEXT/INPUT

PROCESS/ THROUGHPUT

RESULTS/OUTPUT

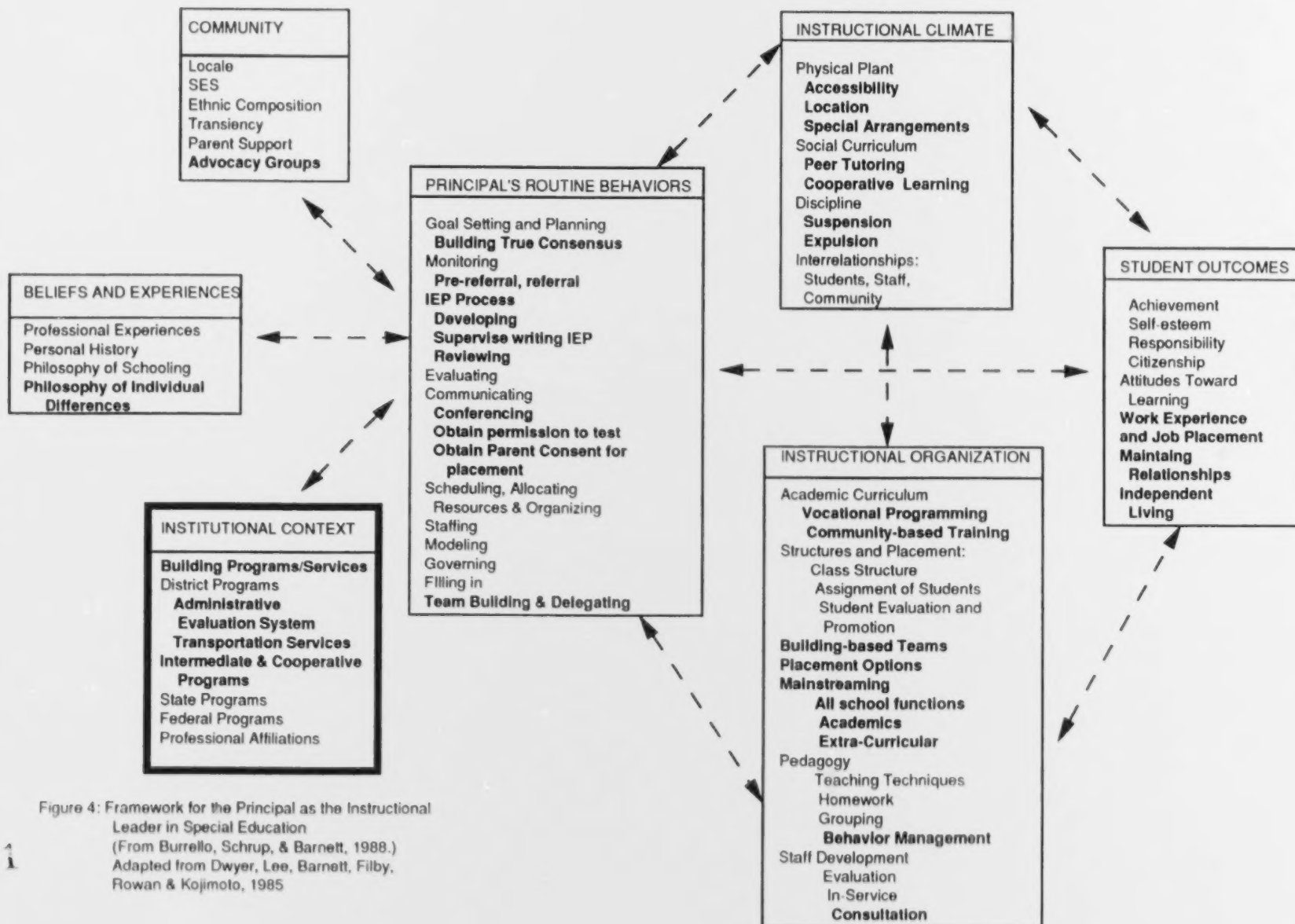


Figure 4: Framework for the Principal as the Instructional Leader in Special Education
(From Burrello, Schrup, & Barnett, 1988.)
Adapted from Dwyer, Lee, Barnett, Filby,
Rowan & Kojimoto, 1985